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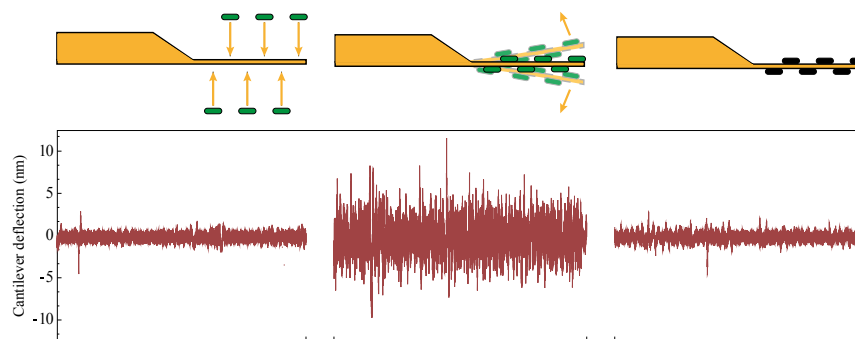


Fig. 1. Detailed depiction of a nanomotion detection experiment. Before the attachment of the living specimens to the sensor, the fluctuations are small (Left). When the specimens are immobilized on the sensor, its fluctuations increase (Center). Finally, if the microorganisms are killed, through a chemical or physical agent, the sensor reverts to small fluctuations (Right).

these systems were artificially activated and repressed by exposing the samples to appropriate chemical components, to demonstrate that the detection system can be used as a simple, extremely sensitive, and weight-efficient “life detector.” In each experiment, we immobilized living samples on the cantilever sensor, and we monitored the evolution of its fluctuations over time. We investigated the viability of a wide range of single cellular living organisms. Among bacteria and yeasts, we studied Gram-negative motile *Escherichia coli* (Fig. 2A), Gram-positive nonmotile *Staphylococcus aureus* (Fig. 2B), and *Candida albicans* yeast cells (Fig. 2C). Measurements were also carried out on eukaryotic cells, such as mouse osteoblasts (MC3T3-E1) (Fig. 3A), human neuroblasts (M17) (Fig. 3B), and plant cells (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) (Fig. 3C). A detailed description of the experimental protocols and of the individual experiments is presented in *SI Text*.

In all cases, the presence of the living systems on the cantilever surface produced an increase in the amplitude of the measured fluctuations. The experimental evidence suggests that these fluctuations reflected the metabolic state of the microbes or of the cells. Indeed, upon the injection of nutrients into the analysis chamber, the amplitude of the oscillations increased whereas the exposure to inhibiting agents stopped the movements of the cantilever, indicating that the chemical affected the specimens. To better visualize the macroscopic effects of the stimuli, some experiments were performed while imaging the cantilever with a conventional optical microscope (examples for each experiment are shown in the respective panels in Fig. 2 for microorganisms and Fig. 3 for cells whereas *Movies S1–S3* show a time-lapse reconstruction of the microscopic movements of the eukaryotes throughout an entire experiment). Comparing the optical images with the nanomotion data gives insight into the

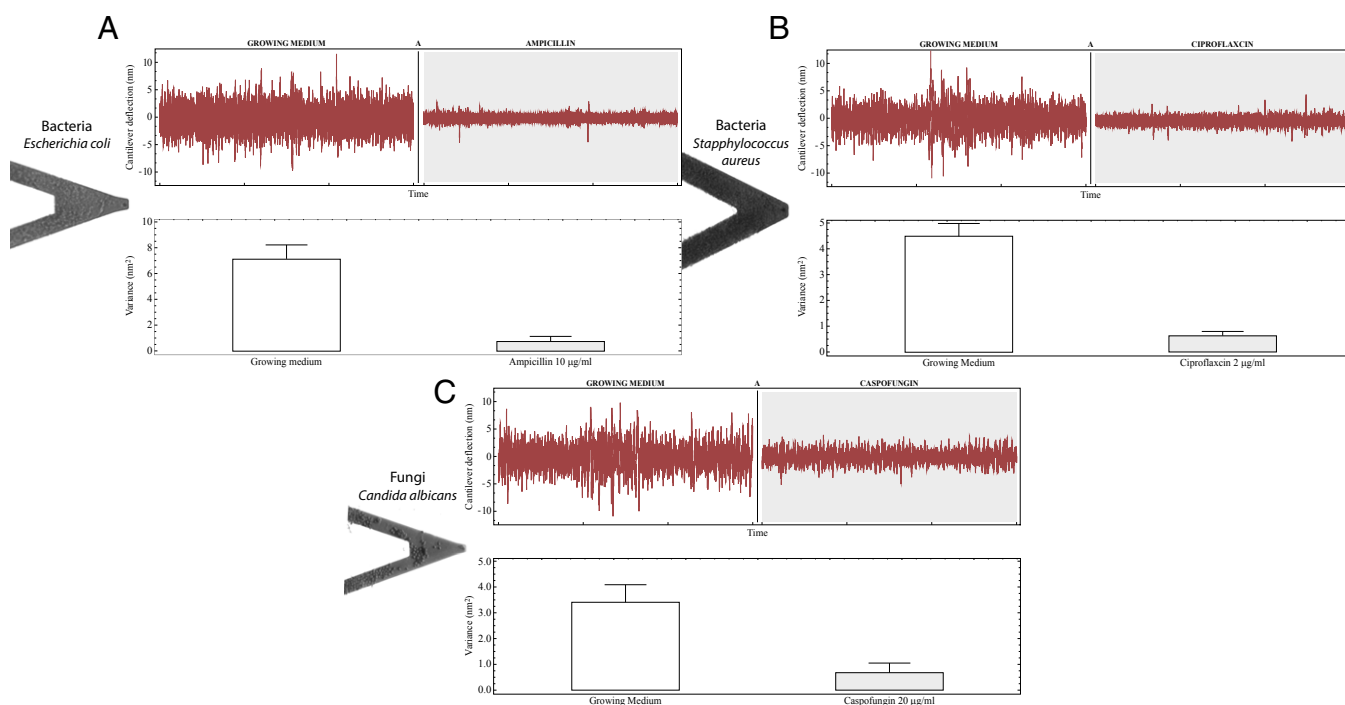


Fig. 2. Experiments on bacteria and yeasts. (A) Experiment involving *E. coli*. Two typical 10-min segments of the sensor’s fluctuations are shown: the living bacteria induced a large fluctuation of the sensor whereas, 15 min after injection of a bactericidal dose of ampicillin, the fluctuations were largely reduced. (B) Experiment involving *S. aureus* exposed to a bactericidal dose of ciprofloxacin. Here, we present two typical 10-min segments of the fluctuations in buffer and after exposure to the antibiotic. (C) Experiment involving *C. albicans* exposed to a fungicidal dose of caspofungin. We show typical 2-min segments of the sensor’s fluctuations before and after exposure to the antifungal.

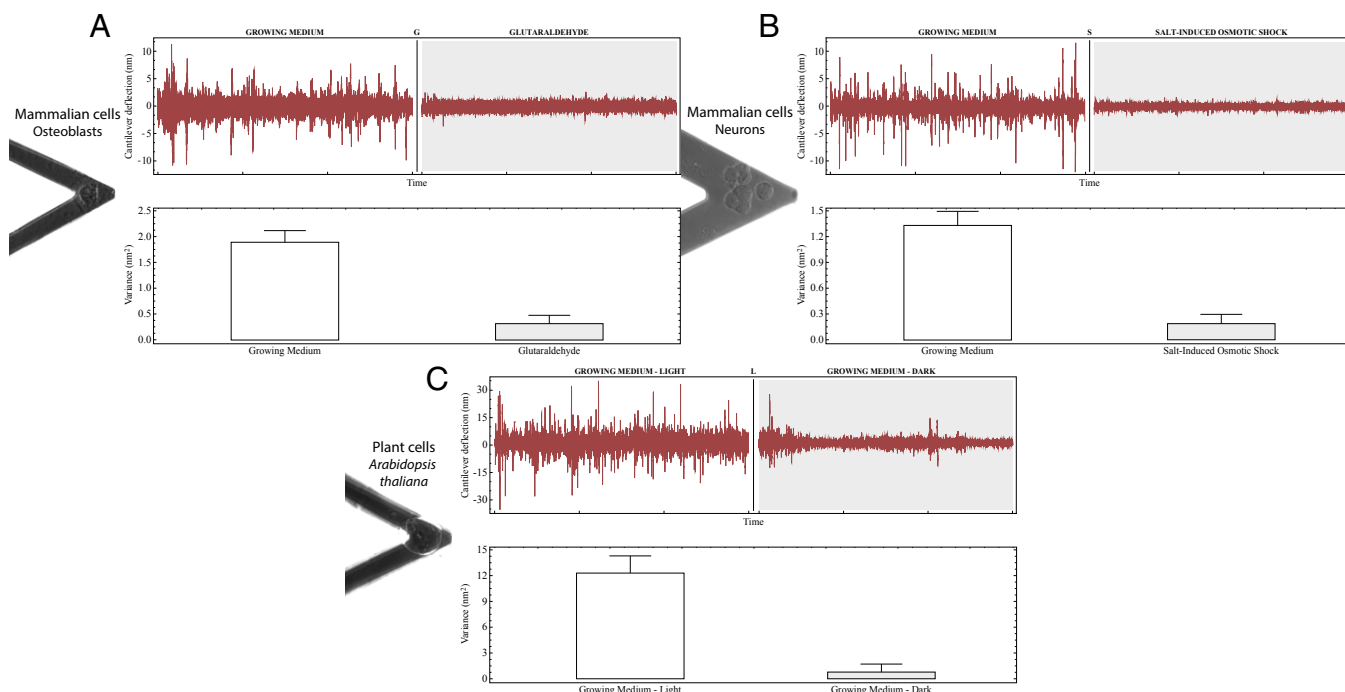


Fig. 3. Experiments on eukaryotic cells. (A) Experiment on osteoblast cells. Two typical 10-min segments of the sensor's fluctuations are shown: a cell was attached to the sensor, and its movements induced large fluctuations. When the cell was killed through chemical fixation, the fluctuations were reduced. (B) Experiment involving neuroblast cells. Here, we present two typical 10-min segments of the fluctuations in buffer and after inducing the death of the cells through osmotic shock. (C) Experiment involving *A. thaliana* cells. We show typical 2-min segments of the sensor's fluctuations while keeping the cell illuminated and after a prolonged period in a dark environment, which induced the death of the cell. We monitored all three experiments using optical images, as shown in [Movies S1–S3](#).

origin of some fluctuation structures. Moreover, the optical images confirmed that the injection of different media, as well as chemical or physical stimuli, did not cause detachment or macroscopic displacement of the cells over the cantilever.

Our previous results show that the fluctuations convey information on the overall metabolism of the specimens and that they are much more than a mere viability test (18, 20). Thus, we performed some experiments specifically designed to understand the origin of the measured fluctuations. We have focused on the pathways involved in the internal motion or in the propulsion of the different specimens and studied the variations of the fluctuations upon their chemical deactivation. In one set of experiments, we studied the effect of the movement of *E. coli*'s flagellum on the overall fluctuation of the sensor. We performed

this experiment by exposing the bacteria to a high concentration of glucose solution, which inhibits the motion and, in some cases, even the synthesis of the flagellum (21). These experiments are described in detail in [SI Text](#) and show that the exposure to glucose caused, at first, an increase in the overall fluctuations, probably induced by the digestion of the added energy source. This first increase was followed by a reduction of the sensor's amplitude, which could be the fingerprint of the inhibition of the flagellum ([Figs. S1 and S2](#)).

In other experiments, we investigated the role on the resulting fluctuations of different cytoskeleton components of mammalian cells. Osteoblasts were treated with chemical agents that induced the depolymerization of either the actin ([Fig. S3 and Movie S4](#)) or the tubulin cytoskeletal networks ([Fig. S4 and Movie S5](#)).

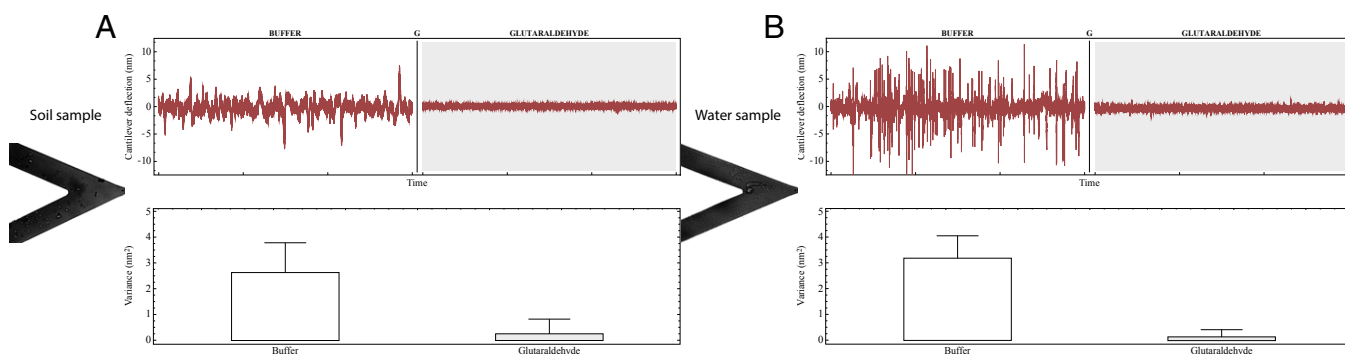


Fig. 4. Experiments involving soil and water samples. (A) Typical 4-min segments of the sensor's fluctuations induced by the presence of microorganisms from the soil sample are shown. The viability of the specimens caused large fluctuations, and, when glutaraldehyde was introduced to kill all microorganisms, the fluctuations returned to low levels. (B) The living systems present in the water samples induced an increase in the amplitude of the movements of the sensor. After chemical fixation, the movements were reduced.

These experiments, recounted in *SI Text*, show that the high temporal resolution of the nanomotion detector evidences two different subgroups of fluctuations, which could represent the signature of the movements of the actin and of the tubulin networks. Specifically, large fluctuations of the sensor can be associated with movements inside the actin network whereas less intense but more frequent fluctuations can be attributed to the tubulin network. Naturally, some more studies will be needed to understand fully all of the components of the signal produced by living systems. In fact, we have recently demonstrated that even small conformational changes in proteins can induce fluctuations of the cantilever sensor (22). Thus, we can conclude that nanoscale movement is a universal signature of life and that every living system exhibits a large and diverse variety of movements that are related directly to their viability.

One remarkable peculiarity of the nanomotion detector is that it does not need a complete characterization of the specimens under investigation to detect their presence and viability. In fact, we were able to perform completely blind experiments in which the samples were originated from uncontrolled sources and completely unknown. We collected some dry soil from the fields and some water from the river Sorge, near our university campus. A first simple optical microscopy investigation evidenced the presence of different kinds of microorganisms, including bacteria and small unicellular species. We performed a nanomotion detection investigation: just like in the other controlled experiments, we diluted the samples in the analysis chamber and immobilized them on the cantilevers. Next, we measured the fluctuations of the sensors in a buffer solution. The fluctuations of the cantilever are shown in Fig. 4 and confirm that the soil (Fig. 4A) and water samples (Fig. 4B) contain living specimens. Their movements on the sensor's surface caused large fluctuations of the cantilever whereas, by chemically inducing their death, these fluctuations were greatly reduced.

Remarkably, in each of the experiments described in this work, we needed just a few tens of minutes to determine the presence of viable microorganisms. Moreover, a very small number of living specimens diluted in just a few microliters of solution were sufficient to perform the experiments.

These results demonstrate that this technique can efficiently identify the activity produced by a wide range of living organisms that inhabit Earth and that, in some cases, the collected data can help identifying the specific signature of particular cellular movements. Even if the sample under investigation is not characterized, the nanomotion detector can rapidly and reliably deliver

information on its viability. In fact, whereas most of the conventional life detectors currently used in biology and astrobiology look for the chemical signatures of life, this technique is focused on monitoring a physical quantity: the nanometer-scale movement. This technique offers a complementary point of view in the search for life in extreme habitats. For instance, it could allow the detection of systems with novel and unexpected metabolic pathways. Indeed, by combining chemical and dynamical measurements, we could achieve an unprecedented depth in the characterization of life in extreme and extraterrestrial environments.

Furthermore, these results will be useful to define the physical and chemical limits for life on Earth and to understand the underlying biophysical characteristics of life that set these limits (23). Finally, the simplicity of its working principle and the possibility to miniaturize and parallelize the apparatus make this device a good candidate to be embarked in future life-seeking spaceships.

Methods

To perform the experiments, we used commercial silicon nitride, micro-fabricated 200- μm -long cantilevers, with a nominal spring constant of 0.06 N/m (DNP-10 Bruker). The oscillations of this lever were detected through the deflection of the laser beam of a commercial AFM; for all of the presented experiments, we used a Nanowizard III (JPK). The data analysis was completed with custom software written in LabView (National Instruments).

The typical setup of the experiments is described in detail in our previous works (18, 20). Briefly, a typical experiment started by depositing the specimen of interest onto the sensor, which was preliminarily functionalized with a linker molecule. Depending on the particular system under investigation, we chose the functionalization that had demonstrated the best immobilization efficiency. For bacteria, yeast, and plant cells, we chose glutaraldehyde; for neuron cells, we functionalized the sensor with poly-L-lysine; and osteoblasts required a fibronectin coating (see the *SI Text* for a detailed description of the cantilever preparation for each experiment). The fluctuations of the cantilever were recorded in nourishing media and were used to define the viability of the living organisms. Subsequently, the cantilever was exposed to chemical or physical conditions that brought the living specimens to death, resulting in reduced fluctuations of the sensor. To evaluate the experimental results, the fluctuations of the cantilever were statistically analyzed by calculating their variance.

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